Whole Heart Simulation of Severe Aortic Stenosis Using a Lumped Parameter Model of Heart Valve Dynamics

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Abstract

In recent years, a variety of models that couple 3D whole heart electromechanics to a 0D circulation model have been published. In general, these models are able to reproduce major features and phases of human circulation. However, they are lacking physiological detail regarding pressure and flow across the valves, since they are typically modeled as a diode with a characteristic resistance.

To alleviate this shortcoming of the circulation models, we implement a model of heart valve dynamics based on Bernoulli’s principle to account for the transvalvular pressure drop and combine it with a model to control opening and closing of the valves based on pressure differences. We evaluate the new model based on a simulation with healthy valves and explore the possibility of simulating heart valve diseases by considering a case of severe aortic stenosis.

We show that the model more faithfully reproduces pressure, volume, and flow in all four chambers and in particular across the valves. Most of the changes are related to the consideration of blood inertia. However, we are able to show that only by opening and closing the valves more slowly, it is possible to reproduce features connected to backflow such as the dicrotic notch. When reducing the maximum area ratio of the aortic valve to 10%, a pressure gradient of 77.2 mmHg across the aortic valve during systole and a 20% reduction in stroke volume was observed in accordance with the AHA guidelines of severe aortic stenosis.

To conclude, we were able to improve our existing 0D circulation model in terms of physiological accuracy by replacing the diode-like valves with an easy to implement model of heart valve dynamics that is capable of simulating both healthy and pathological scenarios.

1. Introduction

Certain cardiovascular diseases such as defective valves, stiffened blood vessels or increased vascular resistances influence the pumping efficiency and behavior of the heart. These influences can be studied in mathematical models of the heart if the underlying mechanisms between cardiac mechanics and circulation are considered sufficiently. Therefore, it is important to implement physiologically valid hemodynamic boundary conditions.

Previous publications that coupled 3D whole heart electromechanics to a 0D lumped parameter model of the circulatory system were able to achieve results in the physiological range [1, 2]. However, both modeled the valves as diodes with an associated resistance. This makes it impossible to observe dynamics in flow and to include pathological conditions. A more complex valve model based on the effects of inertia due to acceleration in time and the Bernoulli effect was used by Augustin et al. [3]. Their valve opens instantly with a forward pressure drop and closes smoothly through a combination of backward pressure and forward flow. In a distributed modeling approach (1D), a model with a smooth opening and closing of the valves was used by Caforio et al. [4].

In this study, we extend our previously published circulatory system model [1] by a valve model derived from Bernoulli’s equation [5, 6] and show that it is capable of reproducing physiological behavior in the case of healthy valves and a case of severe aortic stenosis.

2. Material and Methods

To study the effects of heart valve dynamics in whole heart simulations, we utilize the previously developed mesh shown in Figure 1. Since we are mainly interested in the effects of heart valve dynamics, we neglect electromechanical feedback mechanisms, i.e. our previous model used in [1] reduces to

\[
\begin{cases}
\rho_0 \frac{\partial^2 d}{\partial t^2} - \nabla \cdot F_S = 0 & \text{in } \Omega_0, \\
F_{SN} = f_{\text{contact}} & \text{on } \Gamma_{C0}^0, \\
F_{SN} = -p_{CH} JF^{-T}N & \text{on } \Gamma_{CH}^0, \\
d = 0 & \text{on } \Gamma_D^0,
\end{cases}
\]

with the density \( \rho_0 \), the displacement \( d \), the deformation gradient \( F \), its determinant \( J = \det(F) \), the surface normal direction \( N \), and the 2nd Piola Kirchhoff stress \( S = \frac{\partial W(F)}{\partial F} + T_0 f_0 \otimes f_0 (F f_0 \cdot F f_0)^{-0.5} \).
Since we only consider cardiac mechanics in this study, it is assumed that the development of active tension \( T_a \) is equal to the time course of chamber elastance \( E(t) \). Stergiopoulos et al. [7] suggested that the elastance of the left ventricle can be approximated by two Hill functions:

\[
e(t) = \frac{E(t) - E_{\text{min}}}{E_{\text{max}} - E_{\text{min}}} = \frac{1}{k} \left( \frac{g_c}{1 + g_c} \right) \left( \frac{1}{1 + g_t} \right),
\]

with \( g_c = \left( \frac{t'}{\tau_c} \right)^{m_c}, \quad g_t = \left( \frac{t'}{\tau_t} \right)^{m_t}, \quad t' = \text{mod} \ (t - t_0, T), \quad k = \max(e(t)). \)

Equation (2) is used as an active stress driver function \( T_a(t) = T_{\text{max}} e(t) \) with the parameters in Table 1.

**Table 1. Parameters for the active stress driver function.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Ventricles</th>
<th>Atria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contraction rate const. ( m_c )</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxation rate const. ( m_r )</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contraction time offset ( \tau_c )</td>
<td>0.215 s</td>
<td>0.042 s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxation time offset ( \tau_r )</td>
<td>0.362 s</td>
<td>0.138 s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Onset time ( t_0 )</td>
<td>0.15 s</td>
<td>0.0 s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period ( T )</td>
<td>0.8 s</td>
<td>0.8 s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peak tension ( T_{\text{max}} )</td>
<td>80 kPa</td>
<td>25 kPa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Myocardial tissue (\( \Omega_{RA} \cup \Omega_{LA} \cup \Omega_{RV} \cup \Omega_{LV} \)) is assumed to be hyperelastic, transverse isotropic, and nearly incompressible as described by [8] (\( b_{\text{eff}} = 32.8, \quad b_t = 13.1, \quad b_{rt} = 22.9, \quad C = 34.64 \text{ Pa}, \quad \kappa = 650 \text{ kPa} \)). The remaining tissue is modeled as a Neo-Hookean material.

To model the effect of the pericardium, we solve a frictionless contact handling problem [9] at the contact interface \( \Gamma_{CI} = \Gamma_M \cup \Gamma_S \). Additionally, omnidirectional spring boundaries were added at the distal end of the truncated pulmonary artery and the aorta with a spring stiffness of \( 1 \text{ MPa m}^{-1} \).

We calculate the pressure \( \rho_{\text{CH}} \) in the chambers \( \text{CH} = \{ \text{LA, RA, LV, RV} \} \) by coupling a closed-loop lumped parameter model of the circulatory system introduced in [1]

\[
\frac{\text{d}c(t)}{\text{d}t} = G_c(t, c(t), p(t)) \quad \text{for} \quad t \in (0, T)
\]

to the heart via the volume-consistency constraint

\[
V_{\text{CH}}^{\text{3D}}(d(t)) = V_{\text{CH}}^{\text{3D}}(c(t)).
\]

All simulations are performed using CardioMechanics (https://github.com/KIT-IBT/CardioMechanics).

### 2.1. Model of Heart Valve Dynamics

We extend our previously published model of the human circulatory system [1] by a valve model proposed in [5]. It is based on a description of the instantaneous transvalvular pressure gradient \( \Delta p \) derived from the Bernoulli equation to express blood flow \( Q \) through the valves:

\[
\frac{\text{d}Q}{\text{d}t} = \Delta p - B |Q| \frac{Q}{L} \quad \text{with} \quad B = \frac{\rho}{2 A_{\text{eff}}} \quad \text{and} \quad L = \frac{6.28 \rho}{\sqrt{A_{\text{eff}}}},
\]

where the blood density \( \rho = 1060 \text{ kg/m}^3 \) and the effective area of the valve is given by

\[
A_{\text{eff}} = \frac{A_{\text{EO}} A_{\text{Ref}}}{A_{\text{EO}} - A_{\text{Ref}}},
\]

Valve opening and closure can be introduced by using a valve state \( \sigma \in [0, 1] \) to switch between the effective orifice areas \( A_{\text{EO, max}} \) and \( A_{\text{EO, min}} \) in the fully open and closed states, respectively:

\[
A_{\text{EO}}(t) = (A_{\text{EO, max}} - A_{\text{EO, min}}) \sigma(t) + A_{\text{EO, min}}.
\]

By defining the minimum and maximum area ratios

\[
M_{\text{max}} = \frac{A_{\text{EO, max}}}{A_{\text{Ref}}} \quad \text{and} \quad M_{\text{min}} = \frac{A_{\text{EO, min}}}{A_{\text{Ref}}},
\]

the effective area can be expressed as

\[
A_{\text{Eff}}(t) = A_{\text{Ref}} \frac{s(t)}{1 - s(t)} \quad \text{with} \quad s(t) = (M_{\text{max}} - M_{\text{min}}) \sigma(t) + M_{\text{min}}.
\]

A smooth transition from a closed (\( \sigma = 0 \)) to an open (\( \sigma = 1 \)) valve can be accomplished by making the rate of opening proportional to \( 1 - \sigma \) and the rate of closure proportional to \( \sigma \) [6]:

\[
\frac{\text{d}\sigma}{\text{d}t} = \begin{cases} 
K_o (1 - \sigma) \Delta p & \text{if} \quad \Delta p > 0, \\
K_c \sigma \Delta p & \text{if} \quad \Delta p \leq 0.
\end{cases}
\]
2.2. Model of Aortic Stenosis

Before we simulate aortic stenosis, we first have to establish suitable values for the parameters in Eqs. (5) to (10) for healthy valves (Table 2). The exact size of the reference area $A_{ref}$ is of little importance compared to the maximum area ratio. Therefore, we choose the reference area for the semilunar valves based on the diameter of the proximal pulmonary artery and aorta (typically around 3 cm) and assume a maximum area ratio close to 1. Atrioventricular (AV) valves typically have a larger diameter (4 cm to 5 cm). However, the annulus diameter is smaller, which is why we set the maximum area ratio to 70%. The proportionality constants $K_o$ and $K_c$ are responsible for how fast the valves open and close. We choose the values such that it takes a few milliseconds to open the valves and realistic reverse flows occur during valve closure.

Table 2. Parameters used for healthy heart valves.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Param.</th>
<th>Semilunar valves</th>
<th>Atrioventricular valves</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$A_{ref}$</td>
<td>7 cm$^2$</td>
<td>15 cm$^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$M_{max}$</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$M_{min}$</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$K_o$</td>
<td>$10 \text{ mmHg}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$</td>
<td>$20 \text{ mmHg}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$K_c$</td>
<td>$6 \text{ mmHg}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$</td>
<td>$6 \text{ mmHg}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To simulate aortic stenosis, the maximum area ratio of the aortic valve is reduced to $M_{max} = 0.1$. This results in an effective orifice area of 0.7 cm$^2$, which is classified as severe stenosis ($A_{EO,max} < 1$ cm$^2$) and should result in a mean pressure gradient $> 50$ mmHg according to AHA guidelines [10].

3. Results

To study the influence of the closing rate coefficient $K_c$, the healthy scenario was also simulated with $2 \cdot K_c$ and $3 \cdot K_c$. The resulting valve states, flows, and pressures on either side of the aortic and mitral valve are shown in Figure 2. In the case of the aortic valve, increasing $K_c$ leads to a decrease in backflow and consequently the size of the dicrotic notch. By further increasing $K_c$, the flow and pressure waveforms would slowly converge towards the results with diode-like valves. For the mitral valve however, increasing $K_c$ has larger consequences. After early filling (“E” wave), LA and LV pressures are within 2 mmHg to 4 mmHg. If the mitral valve closes more rapidly, it may reopen again during diastole which results in LA and LV pressures to oscillate around each other resulting in mid-diastolic flow. In some cases, this flow can be observed as a distinct ”L” wave. Compared to the diode-like valve, a delay between LA and LV pressure can be observed during phases in which the mitral valve is open. When inertia of the blood is neglected (Fig. 2, no dynamics), LA and LV pressure waveforms run synchronously.

The pressures and aortic flow of the simulation with severe aortic stenosis are shown in Fig. 3. Compared to the simulation with a healthy valve, the stenosis causes the systolic aortic pressure to decrease by 30.5 mmHg, whereas the larger contribution to the pressure gradient ($\Delta p = 77.2$ mmHg) is due to an increase in left ventricular (LV) pressure. Furthermore, the flow profile through the aortic valve becomes more rectangular shaped and stroke volume (SV) is reduced by 20.8 mL. An increase in mean left atrial pressure of 5.2 mmHg can be observed as well.

4. Discussion

In this study, we extended our previous model of the human circulatory system with a model of heart valve dynamics derived from Bernoulli’s equation with smooth opening and closing of the valves. We demonstrated the validity of the model by simulating healthy valves as well as a severely stenotic aortic valve. In both cases, the model was able to faithfully reproduce all major features of typical pressure, flow, and volume measurements. Using an invariance in the description of the AV valves in particular leads to a more correct temporal relationship between atrial and ventricular pressures. During the early filling phase, ventricular pressures drop more than what is typically seen in measurements. The reason for this might be that the invariance ($L$ in Eq.(5)) for the AV valves is too large, since the
Figure 3. Results of simulations with a healthy aortic valve and severe aortic valve stenosis compared to measurements of a patient with severe aortic valve stenosis reproduced from [11].

original formulation by Garcia et al. [5] was intended for the aortic valve only. Nevertheless, using the model for the AV valves led to a more accurate representation of E and A flow waveforms and thus better E/A-ratio, which is an indicator for LV diastolic function.

In the simulation of severe aortic stenosis, we observe results similar to measurements in patients pre aortic valve replacement surgery [11]. Due to the high outflow resistance of the stenotic aortic valve, LV emptying is impaired which results in a large pressure gradient across the valve. As a consequence peak systolic pressure within the left ventricle is increased. Additionally, this leads to increased wall stress (afterload), decreased SV, and increased end-systolic volume. The resulting pressure gradient of 77.2 mmHg matches the clinical classification of severe aortic stenosis.

In conclusion, we were able to improve the physiological fidelity of the 3D-0D whole heart model in terms of volumes, pressures, and flows by replacing the diode-like valve model with a model of heart valve dynamics based on Bernoulli’s principle with smooth opening and closing of the valves. As demonstrated with the simulation of severe aortic stenosis, the model can be easily adapted to reflect common heart valve diseases such as stenosis or regurgitation.

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References


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